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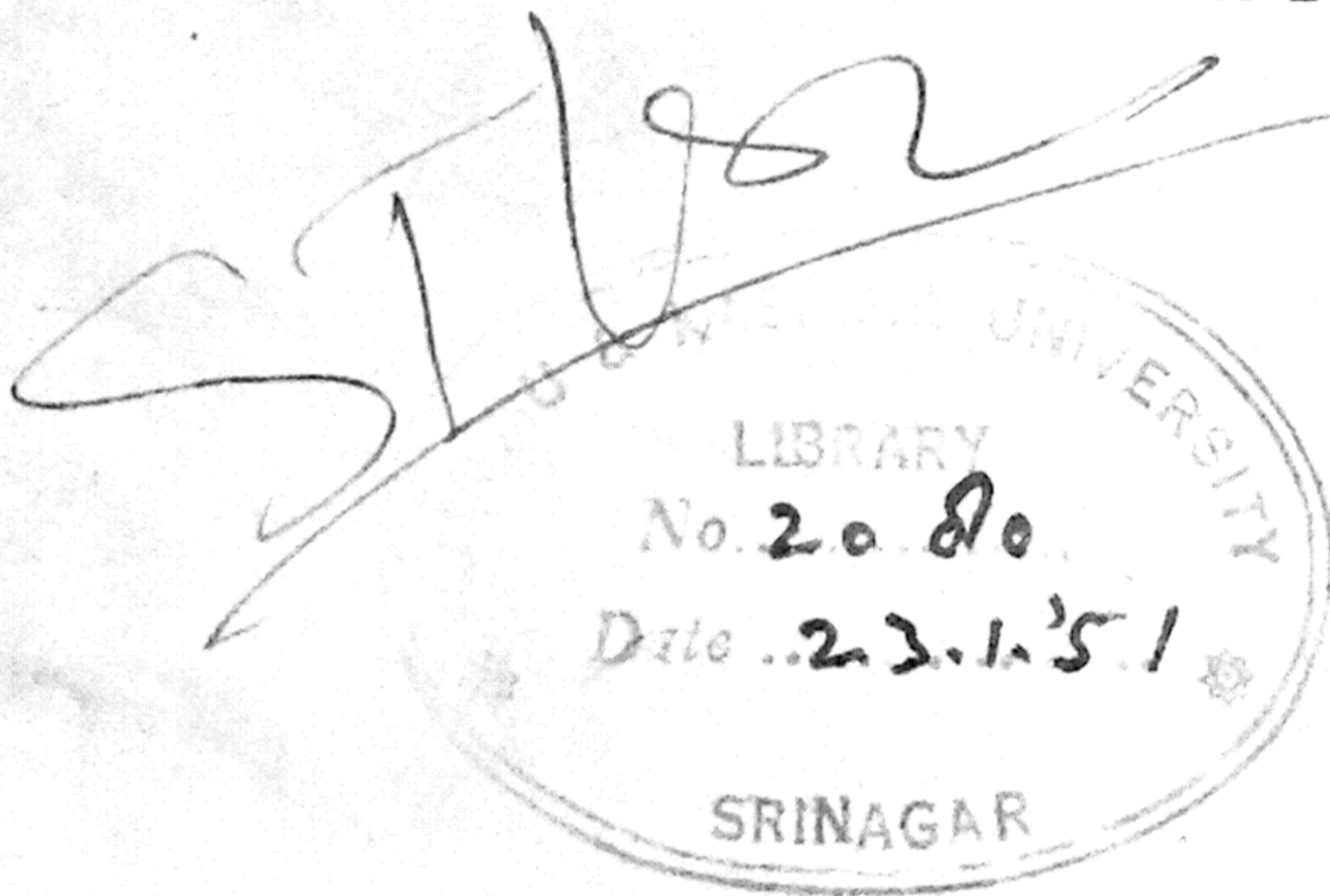
CONTENTS

Shri. M. P. Vaidya

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Manohar

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Readers most current
in the Schools of the
Province of Bombay.



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1557

CONTENTS

	Page
Shri. M. P. Vaidya, M.A., M.Ed. Bilingualism in Educa- tion.	1
Shrimati Priyamvada M. Manohar, M.A., M.Ed. A Study of the English Readers most current in the Schools of the Province of Bombay.	20

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INTRODUCING THE AUTHORS

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BILINGUALISM IN EDUCATION

BY

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1. *Bilingualism : Its Meaning, Types and Degrees :*

Bilingualism is defined as the knowledge and use of two or more languages. But in common parlance, the expression is used with a special connotation, viz., in conditions where a child is required to study two or more languages comparatively early in its life. Most students of secondary schools are required to study a Classical or Modern European Language as part of their upper secondary course ; but such cases are not generally regarded as problems in bilingualism.

There are three *types* of bilingualism : (1) *Home Bilingualism* where a child hears more than one language at home, either because its parents have different mother-tongues or because the parents use one language and the servants another ; (2) *Street Bilingualism* where a child hears one language at home and another in the street—a common phenomenon in the case of all families who have migrated to or live in the regions of another language ; and (3) *School Bilingualism* where a child hears one language at home but is educated at school through another language—a common phenomenon with linguistic minorities. These are the three main types ; but some other minor types can also be distinguished. For instance, a child

may hear one language at home, another at school and a third in the street ; another child may speak one language with the parents, another with the servants, and study one or more other languages at school ; etc. But these cases are evidently the result of a combination of two or more of the three types of bilingualism mentioned above.

The *degree* of bilingualism is measured by the difference between the two languages a child is required to study. The case of a child learning Marathi and Gujarati is evidently different from that of a child studying Marathi and Tamil. It is obvious that the degree of bilingualism affects both the learning mechanism and the thinking process and is, therefore, of great importance in education.

2. *Origins of Bilingualism :*

Bilingualism arises in various ways. In *families*, the most frequent cause of bilingualism is a 'mixed' marriage between persons of different linguistic groups. Among *occupations*, missionaries who have to work among foreign peoples, businessmen who trade with other countries, and Government officials of a multilingual country where the language of Government is often different from that of the official or of the place in which he happens to be posted, are most frequently bilingual. *Geographically*, bilingualism is present in cosmopolitan cities like Bombay, in nations like Czechoslovakia or India where multiple language-groups exist, and in countries like the U. S. A. where people immigrate from all parts of the world. *Culturally*, bilingualism becomes inevitable in higher education if the language of the people concerned is not sufficiently developed. *Politically*, bilingualism results when one nation conquers and rules over another. Finally, *economic* factors

also foster bilingualism because they bring different language-groups together for purposes of trade and commerce.

In the world of today, there are some forces such as heightened political consciousness of minority groups which tend to preserve and develop each separate language ; on the other hand, there are also forces which are making the world smaller and bringing its different peoples ever closer together. These latter forces which generally lead to bilingualism are stronger and, therefore, bilingualism is now on the *increase* rather than on the *decrease*.

3. *Extent of Bilingualism :*

Bilingualism is now found in most countries of the world ; but its extent, character, and the educational methodology adopted to meet it differ from nation to nation.

In *Wales*, the outstanding problem is that of the Welsh language which is the mother-tongue of about two-thirds of the people. The increasing disappearance of Welsh under modern conditions led to the appointment of a Departmental Committee in 1927, and in 1929, the Welsh Department of the Board of Education in England issued an important memorandum on the subject. It directed (i) that where Welsh was the language of the home, it should be taught systematically in the school, especially in the earlier years, and used as a medium of instruction in other subjects ; (ii) that in predominantly Welsh or English areas, the formal teaching of the second language (whether English or Welsh) should begin at about the age of 7 ; and (iii) that, wherever possible, the mother-tongue should be adopted as a medium of instruction in all mixed areas.

In *Belgium*, French and Flemish are the two commonest languages, and most children have a bilingual background,

which makes them particularly capable to master foreign languages. In *Switzerland*, the population is multilingual. About 71 per cent of the people speak German, about 21 per cent speak French, about 5 per cent speak Italian and some 2 per cent speak Romansch. All these four are official languages. In several areas, the German schools use French as a second language, while the French schools use German as a second language. In *Czechoslovakia*, Czech, German, Polish and Slavonic are the languages in use, and bilingualism is frequent. At the lower stages, all the languages are used as media of instruction ; but at the University stage the medium is either Czech or German. In *Luxemburg*, the official languages are German and French. In *Ireland*, the bilingual problem arises between Irish and English. In most parts of Ireland, Irish is the language of the people and English is taught as a second language ; but even in English-speaking areas, Irish is necessarily taught as an additional language.

In *Canada*, the bilingual problem arose historically, because the country first began as a French colony which was later on transferred to the English. The French still have a majority in Quebec, and are generally Roman Catholics, while the English are mostly Protestants. The Roman Catholic schools in Quebec generally use French as the medium of instruction (although a few of them use English for the same purpose) and are attended by the children of English-speaking Roman Catholics also. In most French schools, English is taught as a second language, and in several English schools, French is taught as a second language. In *U. S. A.*, the extent of bilingualism varies from state to state. As the medium of instruction in all schools is English, the immigrant population of all non-English countries is necessarily bilingual.

In the *Union of South Africa*, Afrikaans and English are both the official languages of the country, and both are used as media of instruction in schools. The great majority of the South African teachers have bilingual qualifications and more than 58 per cent of the total population is bilingual. In schools, a second language—either English or Afrikaans—is a compulsory subject.

In *New Zealand* and *Australia*, the bilingual problem arises in connection with the education of the aboriginal people, and in *Central* and *South America*, it arises partly on account of immigration and partly on account of the education of the indigenous people.

4. *The Problem of Bilingualism in India :*

India is an extremely bilingual country. The census of 1931 showed that more than a crore of people were bilingual. There are nearly two hundred languages and dialects in India. Many of them have neither a script nor a literature, so that the people who speak them are compelled to learn another language even for elementary education. Even in the case of well-developed languages like Bengali, Tamil, Marathi and Gujarati which are spoken by large numbers of people who live in fairly compact areas, bilingualism is common—particularly in borderland tracts. Besides, every Indian whose mother-tongue is not Hindi will have to learn it as a national language—a factor which will increase the extent of bilingualism very materially. Moreover, English will have to be compulsorily learnt by all persons who desire to proceed to the university. It is evident, therefore, that a majority of persons in India will have to be bilingual and quite a number will have to be (and also are at present) even multilingual.

5. *Problems created by Bilingualism :*

A study of bilingualism, therefore, assumes great importance in Indian education and raises the following issues, amongst others :—

- (1) *Is bilingualism a handicap ?*
- (2) *Is it a handicap for all children ?* In particular, it is necessary to examine the part played in the process of language-learning by environment, individual differences, bilingual play, and the attitude of the bilingualist towards the second language.
- (3) *If bilingualism is a handicap, what are its undesirable consequences and how could they be best minimised ?*
- (4) *What is the best age to begin the study of a second language ?*

6. *Review of some Previous Investigations of Bilingualism :*

If these and such other questions are to be satisfactorily answered, it is possible to adopt one of the two accepted ways : we may either study the results of investigations conducted in bilingualism elsewhere and apply them to Indian conditions, *mutatis mutandis*, or conduct independent investigations of our own.

Adopting the former of these methods, we find that important investigations in bilingualism have been conducted in Belgium, England, Mexico, the Philippines, Switzerland, Wales and U. S. A. In *Belgium*, the investigations of Decroly showed that (a) the performance of unilingual Walloon children in the Ballard Tests of Intelligence was better than that of the Flemish bilingual children ;

(b) that the degree of Flemish inferiority was not uniform everywhere ; (c) that changing a language or having two languages is more detrimental to boys than to girls ; (d) and that probably bilingualism may not prove to be a handicap to superior children. In *England*, Davies and Hughes tested bilingual Jewish and unilingual non-Jewish children who all came from a uniform social and economic background and attended similar schools and found, using the Northumberland tests, that the Jewish children were definitely superior to the non-Jewish in general intelligence and in attainments in English and Arithmetic. In *Mexico*, Stecker made a nationwide survey of 2,00,000 children and found (a) that the linguistic proficiency of a bilingualist falls short of that of a monoglot ; (b) that early bilingualism is inevitable ; (c) that a bilingualist acquires a third language with greater facility than a monoglot ; and (d) that bilingual children do not suffer from an intellectual handicap. In the *Philippines*, the Education Commission found that (a) the use of English as a medium of instruction right from the primary stage had proved to be a handicap and that (b) a change of the material in reading-books and an increase in the amount of silent-reading was essential if the knowledge of English of the Filipino child was to improve. In *Switzerland*, Epstein came to the conclusion that (a) two or more languages known by a person tend to inhibit each other and that (b) multilingualism was a social plague, while Meyhoffer found that multilingualism was a source of intellectual, moral and social enrichment for the child. In *U. S. A.*, several studies of bilingualism have been made and the conclusions are often conflicting. Some have found that bilingualism is a handicap, others hold that it is not, while some others, like Arsenian of Columbia University, believe that bilingualism is, in itself, neither favourable nor unfavourable to the mental development of children.

In *Wales*, some of the most important and well-known investigations into bilingualism have been made by Saer, Smith and Hughes. The investigations revealed (a) that urban bilinguals are not intellectually inferior to urban monoglots ; (b) that rural bilinguals are markedly inferior to rural monoglots ; (c) that dextrality was more pronounced among the bilinguals ; (d) that the mean range of vocabulary for monoglot children in English was higher than that of bilingual children either in English or in Welsh, and (e) that the language used by children in play has a high degree of affective value.

It will be seen from the foregoing analysis that the conclusions are often conflicting. This is due, among others, to such causes as (1) the subjective attitude of some investigators, (2) failure to allow for difference in the social and economic environment of the children studied, and (3) differences in the *degree* of bilingualism in different countries. It is, therefore, evident that the results of the foreign investigations will *not* help us to solve the bilingual problem in India although they will have an important use in guiding us to plan original investigations of our own on scientific principles.

It is to be regretted, however, that in this important field there have been no investigations in India except those conducted by Dr. Michael West in Bengal. Dr. West was mainly interested in the problem of teaching English to Indian students. He deprecated the emphasis on learning to *speak* English and advocated the larger use of silent-reading. He found that the average vocabulary in English of an Indian student at the Matriculation level (Age 16-18) was equivalent to that of an English boy

aged 9½ years. This discrepancy in the vocabulary necessitated, in the opinion of Dr. West, the writing of special English books for Indian children, in which the ideas expressed would be suitable to a higher age-range but the vocabulary used would be very limited. Dr. West finally planned the New Method Reader Series in the light of the findings of this research.

It is evident that the vast field of studies in bilingualism is as yet unexplored in India. This investigation arose, therefore, out of a desire to do something in this direction.

7. Venue of the Investigation and the Schools selected :

This investigation was conducted in the city of Bombay which affords an ideal bilingual background and where schools teaching on different lines are readily available for study. Five schools were selected for an intensive examination. The details about these schools are given in the table on the next page.

From the point of view of this investigation, it will be seen that (1) School A is a case of perfect school bilingualism for most Parsi, Hindu and Muslim children ; (2) School B is another case of perfect school bilingualism for most children; (3) Schools C, D & E use Gujarati—the mother-tongue—as the medium of instruction ; but they begin the study of English at different stages. School B adds Hindi as an extra language in Prim. Std. IV ; and that (4) the Kacchi children who speak Kacchi at home, Kacchi and/or Gujarati in the street, and Gujarati and English at school form a typical problem by themselves.

School.	Type.	Class of children attending.	Income of Parents per month.	Languages taught.
A	Montessori.	.. Mostly Parsis, 20% Europeans, a few Hindus and Muslims.	Rs. 400 to Rs. 1,000 and over.	English is the medium—Gujerati is taught as an additional language.
B	High School.	.. Goans and Parsis (several children have Marathi or Gujarati as their mother-tongue).	Rs. 60 to Rs. 70 except in the case of Parsis who were richer.	English is the exclusive language taught.
C	High School (co-educational) with a Primary and Montessori Department.	25% Jains, 60% Advanced and Intermediate Hindus, 15% Parsis and Muslims.	Rs. 100 to Rs. 1,500. Range for majority—Rs. 200—Rs. 500.	Gujerati is the medium in the Montessori Class. English is begun from Std. I of Primary Schools. Medium of instruction is Gujarati.
D	Co-educational High School.	All classes	.. Rs. 50 to Rs. 200	.. Medium is Gujarati. English taught from Prim. Std. IV. Hindi also taught from Prim. Std. IV.
E	High School.	.. Do. Large numbers of Kacchi children who speak Kacchi at Home.	Do.	.. Medium is Gujarati. English taught from Std. V.

8. *Tests used :*

The following tests were used in the course of this investigation :

- (1) *General Intelligence Tests*—Binet—Simon Scale (London Revision). They were used in original English and in Gujarati translation.
- (2) *Reading Ability* was tested on the lines of Test No. 3 given in his *Handbook of Tests* by Burt. It was administered in English and Gujarati as well.
- (3) *Mental Arithmetic Tests* : Each test consisted of 8 items and was separately designed for ages 7, 8 and 9. They were used in original English and in Gujarati translation.
- (4) *Columbia Mental Tests* : First test, viz., obeying orders was used in original English and in Gujarati adaptation.
- (5) *Porteus Maze Tests*.
- (6) *Vocabulary Tests* : (a) The pupils were asked to write, in three minutes, as many Gujarati words as they could.
(b) As there is no word frequency list in Gujarati, the word at the beginning of every even page in the Gujarati dictionary by Patel was selected, making a list of 432 words. Students were asked to mark out the words they knew.
- (7) *Spearman's Tests* : Four of the seven tests designed by Spearman, viz., same or opposite, synonyms, classification, and questions were used uniformly in English.

- (8) *Absurdities Tests* : These were adopted generally from Ballard and translated into Gujarati.
- (9) *Bilingual Background* was measured by a simple adaptation of Prof. M. N. H. Hoffman's formula for the measurement of bilingual background.

9. *Stages of Investigation* :

- (1) The *first* stage of the investigation was to observe 100 cases of bilingual or multilingual children. No tests were used, but general observations regarding the extent and character of the bilingual background and general attainments (with special reference to linguistic ability) were noted.
- (2) In the *second* stage of investigation, tests were used. In all, 655 children were tested—462 boys and 193 girls. The age-range was 3 to 15 and the classes varied from pre-primary to Std. VII.

10. *Results of the Observations of 100 Cases of Bilingual Children* :

Carefully prepared case histories of 100 children showed that the following conclusions may be inferred therefrom :—

- (a) Children pick up languages quickly at very early years if they have opportunities of hearing them spoken and of imitation. Thus, in several cases, children between 4 and 6 were able to speak two and even three languages.

- (b) Children forget languages learnt fairly quickly if they do not get opportunities to use them. For instance, a child who could speak Marathi as a second language fairly well in Dadar forgot it after some time when the family shifted to a Gujarati locality.
- (c) Children try to construct sentences by grouping words and forms together under a process of analogy. Hence, bilingual children often show confusion about words which have a similar form but different meanings in the two languages, about genders, about interchange of letters, etc.
- (d) There is no instinctive preference for the mother-tongue. A child will speak that language best which he hears and uses most. Very frequently, this happens to be the mother-tongue ; but sometimes the child speaks the street language better. More often, he speaks two or three languages equally well.
- (e) Languages learnt earlier in life are pronounced better.
- (f) Girls assimilate a second language better than boys.

11. *Results obtained with the Tests :*

In all, 10 different investigations were conducted with the tests and their results are given in the following sub-paragraphs :—

(1) *Intelligence tests* were administered to Montessori classes of Schools A and C. School A showed an average I.Q. of 134.3 and School C of 114. The higher I.Q. of

School A is apparently unaffected on account of bilingualism and is probably due to the high social and economic standing of the children.

(2) *Reading Ability Tests in English* were given to primary standards of Schools A and B and *Reading Ability Tests in Gujarati* were given to primary standards of Schools C and D. The results were :—

School.		Age-range of pupils.	Average Reading Ability in English (words per minute).	Average Reading Ability in Gujarati (words per minute).
A	..	6—7	64.5
B	..	8	60.3
C	..	6	58.8
		6—8	59.1
D	..	5—7	60

It may be concluded that children beginning English early were not handicapped in Reading Ability in comparison with the children of the same age-range who studied Gujarati.

(3) *Mental Arithmetic Tests* were administered to more advanced age groups in Schools B, C and E. The results were :—

Average No. of correct solutions (out of a total of 8 items).

Schools.	Standard.		Tests for Age Seven.	Tests for Age Eight.	Tests for Age Nine.
B	IA	..	4	3.3
C	Prim. Std. II	..	3.9
	„ III	3.3
	„ IV	3.9
E	„ IV	5.5
	For Kacchi children only.		5.2

N.B.—Standard IA of School B was equivalent to Prim. Standard IV of Schools C and E.

It may be concluded that bilingualism in the sense of using a foreign language as a medium of instruction does affect ability for Mental Arithmetic to a fairly large extent.

(4) *Columbia Mental Tests* were administered in English to Schools A and B and in Gujarati to Schools C and D. The results are :—

School.	Standard.		Age-range.	Average score.
A	I		7—9	7.8
B	Elementary Advanced			
	Class.		7—9	5.8
C	Prim. Std. II	..	5—9	6.1
D	„ IV	..	8—11	5.55

The results show that bilingualism has not affected the pupils in Schools A and B.

(5) *Porteus Maze Tests* were administered to children in Schools B, C and D. The results agreed very closely with those of the verbal tests.

(6) *Vocabulary Tests in Gujarati* were administered in Schools C, D and E to ascertain whether (a) pupils who use English as a medium of instruction react less efficiently to Gujarati vocabulary, and (b) whether early instruction in English as a subject, and not as a medium of instruction, hampers the achievement of the 'first language'. The results are :—

School.	Std. tested. (Secondary)	Average score out of a total of 432 words.	Average score according to ages.			Remarks.	
			11 yrs.	12 yrs.	13 yrs.		
C	III	273	286	303	266	Begins from Std. I.	English Prim.
D	III	282	302	296	218	Begins from Std. IV.	English Prim.
E	III	275	319	243	..	Begins in Std. I.	English Secondary

The difference in average scores is negligible, and on the whole, the age-group of younger children (11 years) has fared better.

Another test administered in these schools was to ask the pupils to write down as many Gujarati words as they can in three minutes. The results are :—

School.	Std.	Average No. of Gujarati words written per minute.
B	Secondary II	19
C	Primary IV	25
	Secondary I	25
	„ II	31
D	„ IIA	26
	„ IID	27

The Gujarati achievement of School C is better than that of School B and almost the same as that of School D. Our finding on the first issue is, therefore, positive and on the second, negative. It may, therefore, be stated that the teaching of English as a subject, even if it began early, does not affect the 'first language' if the mother-tongue is kept up as a medium of instruction.

(7) *Spearman's Tests* : It is held by some that the pupils who begin the study of English later (say, at the age of 11 or 12) learn quicker and soon come on par (and even excel) those who began it at an earlier age. To test the correctness of this view, Spearman's tests were administered in Schools B, C, D and E. The results are :—

School.	Std. (Secondary)	Score in test No .			
		I (out of 30 items).	II (out of 24 items).	III (out of 26 items).	IV (out of 11 items).
B	III	19	14	19	7
C	III	19	14	22	7
D	III	8	6	17	4
E	III	11	9

It can be concluded, therefore, that the above view is not correct. Further, a study of individual scores showed that younger children did better on the whole than older children.

(8) *Absurdities Tests* : This test was administered in English and Gujarati to pupils of Schools B, C and D. The results are :—

School.	Std.	Score in Absur-	
		dities test in English (total of 8 items).	dities test in Gujarati (total of 8 items).
B	Sec. I	2
C	Prim. IV	3
D	Sec. II	4	6

This shows that a foreign medium does act as a handicap in this matter.

(9) Finally, the bilingual scores of some of the pupils, were compared with their test scores. It was found (a) that superior children with the proper background do not suffer on account of bilingualism, (b) that learning two

languages almost together is not a handicap, and (c) that teaching through a language little spoken at home or outside the school-house does become a handicap.

(10) The Kacchi children speak Kacchi at home, Gujarati in school and street, and study English and Hindi at school. The investigations regarding them showed that in spite of this multilingualism, the Kacchi children do not lag behind the Gujarati children in facility of speech, range of vocabulary or general progress. This result may be due to any one or more of the three causes, viz. (a) bilingualism of such a type being neutral to intellectual development, (b) affinity between Kacchi and Gujarati, and (c) higher socio-economic standard of the Kacchi children.

It may, therefore be summed up that (a) bilingualism does not affect superior children or children having a favourable environment ; (b) bilingualism, in cases where its *degree* is not great, does not ordinarily prove to be a handicap ; (c) the use of a foreign language as a medium of instruction does affect the 'first language' and attainments in Arithmetic or the clarity of the thinking process ; and that (d) the teaching of a second language *as a subject* does not become a handicap, even if it is begun early, provided the mother-tongue is used as the medium of instruction.

A STUDY OF THE ENGLISH READERS MOST CURRENT IN THE SCHOOLS OF THE PROVINCE OF BOMBAY

BY

PRIYAMVADA M. MANOHAR, M.A., M.Ed.

1. The Object of the Investigation :

The position of English in Indian education has been considerably altered in the last few years and is likely to be altered still further in the near future. For instance—

- (1) At the high-school stage, English as a medium of instruction has generally been replaced by the mother-tongue ;
- (2) In the near future, English may cease to be the medium of instruction even at the collegiate stage ; and
- (3) English is no longer a subject of prime importance in schools or colleges and the time devoted to its study has been considerably reduced.

These fundamental changes will have to be accompanied by equally far-reaching changes in the matter and method used for the teaching of English in secondary schools. An attempt is, therefore, made in this investigation (a) to determine the new requirements of Indian pupils with regard to English, (b) to examine how far these are met by the English Readers most current in the Province of Bombay, and (c) to make suggestions for the preparation of new English Readers.

2. *Requirements of Indian Pupils with regard to English :*

With the attainment of independence, the political reasons which led to the emphasis on the study of English have ceased to operate and the old view that a command over English is the *sine qua non* of an educated man is no longer held. Nevertheless, English will continue to be studied at the upper secondary and collegiate stages as a compulsory subject because of (a) its richness in literature and scientific knowledge, (b) its character as an international language, (c) its importance in administrative matters in India where it will continue to be the language of Government for several years to come, and (d) its use as an official language by all big municipalities, important commercial concerns, banks, insurance companies, factories, etc. As the vast majority of the students of secondary schools will find employment under Government, local bodies and commercial, financial or industrial concerns, the secondary schools will be ordinarily required to train their average pupils, *not* in the high standard of literary and scientific English, but in that 'bare minimum' of English which is expected of a person in official and business circles. "The object of the teaching of English in Indian schools is primarily utilitarian and secondarily, if at all, linguistic and cultural."¹

Regarding this 'bare minimum' of English which is now expected of an average pupil completing the secondary course, the following suggestions are put forward :—

- (1) The whole range of the English language is no concern of the average Indian pupil. He will

¹K. A. Haye : "English Teaching at the Elementary Stage", *Teaching*, Vol. XIII, p. 169.

need to know English in official or business fields rather than in domestic or emotional ones. In the same way, he is more concerned with urban atmosphere rather than with rural.

- (2) Business and official correspondence is of great value.
- (3) Ability to speak and write simple everyday English is of far greater importance than ability to read and enjoy English literature.

It should not be thought that these should be the exclusive considerations in teaching English in secondary schools. Some time should also be devoted to cultivate reading ability, to study literary English or words and expressions connected with the domestic, emotional or rural atmosphere. But in planning the course of English at the secondary stage, the emphasis must necessarily be on the utilitarian requirements of the average pupil.

3. *Selections of Sets of Primers and Readers for Study :*

Having determined the requirements of Indian pupils of secondary schools with regard to English, the next step in the investigation was to see how far they were satisfied by the Readers most in use. For this purpose, a questionnaire was circulated to all the High Schools in the Province and information regarding the text-books used in English was called for. As many as 227 replies were received and it was seen therefrom that (a) 72.5 per cent of the schools used Readers up to Std. VIII, (b) 16.5 per cent of the schools used Readers up to Std. IX, (c) 11.0 per cent of the schools used Readers up to Std. X, and then switched over to literary selections of different types. The table

Name of the Set.			Percentage of schools using the set.
(1) New Study Readers	28.5%
(2) The Coronation English Revised Readers	23.5%
(3) Longmans English Readers	21.0%
(4) Kohinoor Readers	7.0%
(5) Oxford English Readers	3.5%
(6) My English Book	3.5%
(7) New System Readers	3.5%
(8) Everest Readers	1.5%
(9) Macmillan's New English Readers	1.0%
(10) Nelson Readers	1.0%
(11) New Era English Readers	1.0%
(12) New Indian Class Readers, Reformed Method Readers, etc., each below 1%	5.0%

given above shows the extent to which different Readers are used in these High Schools. It will be seen that the three sets of Readers most current in the Province are (a) New Study Readers by Martin, (b) The Coronation English Revised Readers by J. C. Rollo, and (c) Longmans English Readers by Cameron and Chokshi. These cover 73 per cent of the 227 schools selected and have, therefore, been taken up for detailed examination in this investigation.

An analysis of the replies showed that neither the Longmans nor the Coronation Readers were used beyond Std. VIII and that the New Study was used in Std. IX in a few schools only. This investigation was, therefore, limited to the Primers and Readers I-IV only of these sets.

4. *Study of Primers :*

On a careful analysis and study of the three Primers, the following remarks can be offered :

A. *Longmans Primer*

- (1) Upto page 17, the matter is not divided into suitable teaching units.
- (2) Speech sounds and alphabets are not introduced in a proper graduated sequence.
- (3) Some of the words introduced are useless from the point of pupil's future need, e.g. 'cluck,' 'hoops', 'cabs,' 'moo,' etc.
- (4) Introduction of the sentence is unnecessarily postponed.
- (5) The material in the book is mostly confined to the use of the Present Tense, the only exception being the use of the Future in three successive sentences.
- (6) Most of the sentences are affirmative and attention has hardly been given to negative sentences.
- (7) 'Question' sentences have not received due attention. Only one form, using 'who', is introduced.
- (8) Third person singular of Imperative Mood is used only in one sentence, and the second person singular of the mood, which is often needed in teaching a language by the Direct Method, occurs only in a nursery rhyme.
- (9) Infinitive is used only once.

- (10) Sufficient attention is not always paid to drilling in the new forms.
- (11) A very good feature of the book is the 'picture-composition' lessons which number 11.

B. *New Study Primer*

- (1) The Primer is divided into well-marked units.
- (2) Speech sounds but not alphabets are introduced in a graduated sequence.
- (3) All the words introduced in the beginning are names of concrete objects, the meanings of which the pupil can easily pick up from the pictures provided.
- (4) The sentence is introduced at an early desirable stage.
- (5) The Primer introduces five tenses, viz. (i) Present Indefinite, (ii) Present Imperfect, (iii) Present Perfect, (iv) Past Indefinite, and (v) Future Indefinite.
- (6) Negative forms in all the tenses mentioned above are introduced.
- (7) Interrogative sentences have received attention at an early stage. Eight types of such sentences beginning with 'What,' 'Who,' 'Where,' 'When,' 'How many,' 'How much,' 'Why,' and 'How' and the Interrogatives of verbs in all the tenses have been introduced.
- (8) Imperative Mood has been thoroughly drilled in.
- (9) The Infinitive has been introduced but not sufficiently drilled in.
- (10) There is too much of drilling. Several lessons contain a monotonous use of Negative and In-

terrogative forms of a number of affirmative sentences. It would have been far better if, after giving a few examples, further drilling had been left to the pupil as an oral or written exercise.

- (11) Most of the lessons have an air of artificiality as they are merely a collection of stray sentences illustrating some linguistic item. The only 'composition' lessons are Nos. 54 and 77.
- (12) The ground covered linguistically is more than what is expected or rather desirable in a primer.
- (13) In the majority of the lessons, drilling of the new linguistic items does not come in at the right time, viz., immediately after its introduction. In many lessons, a new item is introduced in the last sentence, the rest of the lesson giving drill in the items already introduced. Not only this but the new item introduced is not taken up for fixing even in the following lesson, but is drilled in after an interval of a number of lessons.
- (14) Omission of the more complicated forms, omission of much of the drill material from the book leaving it to the student—for oral or written work—and the inclusion of a number of composition-lessons on topics interesting to the pupils would make the book less bulky, more interesting and more useful.

C. Coronation Primer

- (1) The matter is divided into well-marked units.
- (2) It is graded phonetically and a good feature is

that phonetic symbols also are given at the bottom of each lesson.

- (3) The alphabets are introduced gradually.
- (4) All the words introduced in the beginning are names of concrete objects.
- (5) The sentence is introduced as early as Lesson No. 3.
- (6) The book introduces only the Present and the Present Imperfect Tenses.
- (7) Negative sentence has received attention at an early stage (in Lesson No. 6). The book, however, takes up the negative forms with 'be' and 'have' only.
- (8) Interrogative sentences also are introduced at an early stage (in Lesson No. 3). Five types of the Interrogative sentences beginning with 'What,' 'How many,' 'Who,' 'Which,' and 'Where' have been introduced. The use of the Interrogative is, however, restricted to the Present Tense ('be' and 'have' only) and the Present Imperfect.
- (9) Imperative second person is thoroughly drilled in, but not immediately after its introduction.
- (10) Up to Lesson No. 18, each linguistic item is drilled in immediately after its introduction. But thereafter, some of the linguistic items introduced go without immediate drilling.
- (11) Lessons 14, 16, 32, 35, 37 and much of 40, 41, 42 and 45 contain drill which is unnecessary as reading matter. It ought to have been left for oral work.
- (12) Very little ground is covered grammatically.

- (13) All the lessons do not seem to be progressively arranged. Lessons Nos. 12, 35, 37, 39, 42, 43 seem to be quite out of place—their proper place being much earlier than the one allotted to them.
- (14) There are eight good composition lessons. Again there are some lessons which give their material in 2 or 3 parts, each part forming a small piece of composition. In many lessons, new matter is introduced, along with drill in the forms already learnt, in such a way that each lesson falls into a number of units, each unit containing a few sentences well-connected with one another. Monotony resulting from stray sentences is thus avoided.
- (15) “The Revision Exercise” is a very good feature of the book. They contain questions giving meaning-tests, spelling tests, practice in the use of articles and bring out the peculiarities of different sentence-forms by presenting them side by side.
- (16) Some of the lessons give at the bottom the grammar peculiarities in those lessons or stress the spellings of difficult words, thereby concentrating the pupil’s attention on them.
- (17) Each lesson gives at the end the words learnt in that lesson. This is also an aid to fixing up the newly acquired vocabulary.
- (18) Another good feature is that the author gives, at the end, a list of words introduced in the book.

The salient points of the three primers are given in the following table for a comparative study.

No.	Feature.		New Study.	Corona- tion.	Long- mans.
1.	Gradual introduction of Alphabets	..	No	Yes	No
2.	Gradual introduction of speech sounds	..	Yes	Yes	No
3.	Sentence introduced	..	early	early	late
4.	Total words introduced	..	425	199	351
5.	Number of Tenses introduced	..	5	2	2
6.	Number of Tenses whose negative forms are introduced		5	1	Nil
7.	Types of question sentences introduced	..	13	7	1
8.	Infinitive introduced	..	Yes	No	Yes
9.	Imperative Mood introduced	..	Yes	Yes	Yes
10.	Drill	..	too much	fair	insuffi- cient
11.	Number of composition lessons	..	2	8	11
12.	Revision Exercises	..	a few	a good number	Nil
13.	Total number of pages	..	90	57	47
14.	List of words introduced	..	not given	given	not given

5. *Study of the Readers :*

Readers I-IV were studied from the following points of view :

- (A) Psychological appeal of the subject-matter of the prose lessons, and the amount and type of poetry included.
- (B) Suitability of the Readers from the point of view of utility—(i) prose, (ii) poems, and (iii) vocabulary, and
- (C) Exercises provided.

6. *Psychological Appeal of the Subject-matter of the Prose Lessons :*

Readers I-IV are generally meant for the age-group of children between 11+ and 14+. An investigation to determine the *reading interests* of Indian children in this age-group would be of great use for the writers of such readers. Unfortunately, no such investigations seem to have been carried out except that of Shri. N. Ghosh who conducted 'An enquiry to determine the reading interests of children at Dacca' and found that children between the ages of 7 and 10 prefer fairy tales, those between 11 and 14 prefer tales of heroism, and those between the ages of 15 and 16 prefer biography.¹ These results are hardly adequate to decide the suitability of the subject-matter of these readers. It was, therefore, presumed that the reading interests of Indian children in the age-group of 11 and 14 are the same as those of English or American children in the same age-group and it was decided to judge the suitability of the subject-matter of these readers accordingly.

Briefly summed up, the researches on the reading interests of English and American children in the age-group of 11-12 to 14-15 show that—

- (1) The reading interests of girls are more or less similar to those of the boys of the same age-

¹Teaching Vol. VIII, p. 90.

level in spite of the fact that (i) the psychological needs of boys are not exactly the same as those of the girls of the same age, and (ii) that, even when interests are common, the age at which a particular interest becomes active or the period for which it remains powerful is different with boys and girls. "Femininity and masculinity are mostly matters of emphasis, rarely of complete distinction."¹

- (2) The age of phantasy and make-believe is definitely over by the time a child is nine years old and hence fairy tales, animal stories and fantasies cease to interest him. His outlook has become definitely realistic and matter-of-fact. The main interests at the ages of 11 and 12 are myths, legends, stories of heroism, mystery or adventure, tales about school, true stories of travel, etc.
- (3) From the age of 13 onwards, adolescence sets in and the main reading interests of children are social welfare, social uplift, patriotism, war and peace, human life and activities, machines and industrial development, etc.

The analysis on page 33 shows how far the prose lessons in the three sets of readers provide reading material appropriate to these psychological needs.

The following comments can be offered on this analysis :

- (a) Fairy Tales, Animal Tales and Animal Fables :

Interest in these subjects ceases at the age of 9 or so. This material, therefore, need have no place even in Reader

¹ Jenkinson, "What do Boys and Girls read?" p. 271.

I. Yet, it has a high place in Readers I and II of Longmans, Readers I, II and III of New Study and Readers II and III of Coronation. It should also be noted that the amount of this material increases (it ought really to decrease with the growing age of the pupil) in Readers II and IV of Longmans, Reader II of New Study and Readers II and III of Coronation.

(b) Legends, Myths and Fables with Human Characters :

These should have only a limited place in Readers I and II and no place at all in Readers III and IV because by the age of 13 or 14, his interest in them is over. But in all the three sets, hardly any space is given to such material in Reader I ; too much of space is given in Readers III and IV where it ought to have none ; and the amount of the material *increases* (while it ought really to decrease) with the higher classes.

(c) Realistic Animal Life :

Children of 10 or 11 are only moderately interested in stories of animal life and their interest is definitely transferred to human life thereafter. Material regarding realistic animal life should, therefore, show a progressive decrease in the set, should have a limited space in Readers I and II and very little, if any, in Readers III and IV. But the Longmans Readers show a progressive *increase*. In the New Study set also, there is a progressive *increase* in Readers I to III and a large allotment of space in Reader IV. The Coronation gives predominance to this material in Reader II. Moreover, the type of information regarding animals given in most lessons is too elementary and suited only to the children in the age-group of 6 to 8.

Readers.	Modern subjects.							
	Fairy Tales, Animal Tales and Animal Fables.	Legends, Myths, Fables with Human Characters.	Realistic Animal Life.	Woodland, Farm, Home and Village Life.	School Life.	Recreation and Games.	Adventure Stories.	Heroism and Historical.
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
LONGMANS :								
I	44.5	..	11.1	18.5	11.1	14.8
II	52.4	17.4	13.0	4.3	..	4.3	..	4.3
III	4.1	33.3	16.7	16.7	20.8	..
IV	12.5	25.2	16.8	4.1	29.1	12.5
NEW STUDY :								
I	28.6	2.6	7.8	31.2	5.3	7.8
II	42.3	15.2	15.2	9.1	3.0	3.0
III	24.2	27.7	24.2	6.8	6.8
IV	7.6	50.3	7.6	7.6	3.8	3.8	..	7.6
CORONATION :								
I	7.6	3.8	..	50.5	7.6	7.6
II	17.5	13.1	13.1	17.4	4.3	4.3	4.3	8.6
III	22.3	18.5	3.7	18.5	..	7.4	3.7	11.1
IV	7.5	18.3	..	7.4	..	3.7	7.4	26.0

(In this Classification parts of lessons which form one teaching unit each were counted separately and the percentages were worked out in terms of such teaching units.)

(d) Woodland, Farm, Home and Village Life :

The interest in these subjects is keen in the age-group of 11-13 and lessens thereafter. This material, therefore, should have a fairly large space in Readers I and II and comparatively less in Readers III and IV. All the three sets generally conform to these requirements although its sudden fall in Reader II of Longmans and the very large percentage given to it in Reader I of New Study or Coronation are not happy.

(e) School Life :

The statistical data gathered by Jenkinson shows that interest in school life is strong at the ages of 11 or 12 and weakens thereafter.¹ This material should therefore be included on the same principles as item (4) above. But it can easily be seen that it is neglected in all Longmans Readers except I, and that it ought to have some place at least in Reader III of New Study and in Readers III and IV of Coronation.

(f) Recreation and Games :

This material is intimately connected with school life. It ought to find a place in every Reader and show a progressive decrease in successive Readers. But it will be seen that Longmans omit it altogether in Readers III and IV and the New Study in Readers II and III. The Coronation Readers show an alternate rise and fall. On the whole, the subject appears to be a little neglected.

¹ Jenkinson : *Op. cit.*, p. 16.

(g) Adventure Stories :

These have a great psychological appeal in the age-group of 11 to 14 which continues to a large extent even thereafter. Jenkinson finds that adventure stories form about 36.2 to 42.8 per cent of the reading material of the children between the ages of 12 and 15. It will, however, be seen that New Study omits it altogether ; Longmans wrongly omit it from Readers I and II ; and Coronation omits it from Reader I and gives it but meagre space in Readers II to IV.

(h) Heroism and Historical :

Children of the age-group 11 to 14 are all interested in this subject and the interest increases markedly at the age of 15 or 16. The material should, therefore, show a progressive increase and a marked rise in Reader IV. All the three sets, however, omit it in Reader I—an unhappy feature. All the sets show a progressive increase, but it may be said that Coronation emphasizes the material a little more and the New Study a little less than what it should be.

(i) Modern Subjects :

Under this heading are grouped subjects like 'Radio,' 'Red Cross Dogs,' 'Telegraphy,' etc., which belong more or less to the information type. Interest in these subjects is fairly keen at the ages of 11 and 12 and shows a marked increase at 13 and 14. The New Study set conforms to this psychological principle ; Longmans omit this material

from all Readers except II ; and the Coronation set gives it an unnecessary emphasis in Readers I and II.

7. *Amount and Types of Poetry included :*

Jenkinson found that even English boys of 12 to 15 have little voluntary interest in poetry.¹ It is, therefore, natural that Indian children of the age-group of 11 to 14 should have but little interest in English poetry. As Wyatt observes, “the number of English poems that can usefully find a place in ‘readers’ at the school stage is very small. For two conditions have to be fulfilled : (i) The matter must be intelligible to the age of the child and the life experience concerned, and (ii) the language must not be at variance with or complicated in any way than the language he is learning through his prose passages for ordinary use in his own speech and writing. Few English poems can be found fulfilling these conditions and it is wiser to omit English poetry altogether from the course than to insert in it poems which do not fulfil them.”² Secondly, with regard to the *types* of poems liked by children, Jenkinson finds that in the age-group of 12 to 15, the predominant interest “is in poems which tell stories”. “This interest does not decline as the boys grow on towards their last year in school. Rather does it increase. The rhetorical type of poem makes quite a strong appeal at all four ages. Descriptive poems, those which depend on what most teachers call their ‘music’ and their ‘pictures’ progressively decline in attractiveness. On the other hand, the lyric and meditative poems seem to gain somewhat in appeal at 15+.”³ An analysis of the three sets of Readers from the above

¹ Jenkinson : Op. cit., p. 98.

² Wyatt : *Teaching of English in India*, p. 70.

³ Jenkinson : Op. cit., p. 102.

point of view appears on the next page. It shows that (a) too much space is given to poetry thereby depriving pupils of other useful material ; (b) nursery poems which have no appeal at the age-level of 11 to 15 find so large a place in all the first Readers ; (c) story poems and rhetorical poems are generally neglected by Longmans ; (d) humorous poems are neglected in all sets ; and (e) lyrical poetry is not included on proper psychological principles.

8. *The Study of the Readers from the point of view of utility :*

The prose lessons of the Readers were classified under the following heads :

- I—Lessons using the method of (a) conversation, (b) conversation-*cum*-narration, or (c) narration.
- II—(a) Entertainment, or (b) Informative lessons.
- III—Lessons dealing with (a) rural, or (b) urban atmosphere ; and
- IV—Letters.

Regarding the *first* of these classifications, it may be stated, in view of the need of the Indian pupils to study simple, everyday and conversational English, that (a) conversational lessons which mostly consist of short sentences should have a high place in early Readers and show a progressive decline, (b) the conversation-*cum*-narration lessons should be moderately represented at all stages—narration getting a greater emphasis in later Readers, and (c) that narrative lessons should begin sparingly but dominate in higher stages. Regarding the *second* classification, the principle should be to give a large place to entertainment lessons in the early Readers, and to decrease it in the later ones by emphasizing the informative type of lessons. With

Types of Poems.

Readers.	Prose.	Poetry.	Nursery.	Story.	Rhetoric.	Descriptive.	Humorous.	Lyric.
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
LONGMANS :								
I	79.5	20.5	28.5	14.3	..	57.2	..
II	77.0	23.0	14.3	85.7	..
III	70.5	29.5	..	10.0	..	90.0	..
IV	67.0	33.0	8.3	..	8.3	58.4	25.0
NEW STUDY :								
I	72.0	28.0	13.3	20.2	13.3	46.6	6.6
II	70.0	30.0	..	35.7	14.3	50.0	..
III	70.0	30.0	..	58.3	8.3	16.7	16.7
IV	63.5	36.5	..	66.7	6.7	20.0	6.6
CORONATION :								
I	65.0	35.0	35.7	14.3	14.3	35.7	..
II	67.5	32.5	..	9.1	9.1	81.8	..
III	63.0	37.0	..	31.2	12.5	37.5	18.8
IV	61.2	38.8	..	35.3	17.6	23.5	11.8

regard to the *third* classification, it may be said that urban atmosphere should be emphasized very greatly rather than the rural one. Finally, a brief reference may be made to *letter-writing*. This is a very useful subject and ought to be emphasized at all stages. Moreover, it is the official or business letter that should be taught and not the domestic one as Indian children will rarely write such letters in English. None of the Readers conform to these principles. There are only four letters in all the three sets and, with the exception of one letter in Coronation Reader IV, all of them are personal.

The prose lessons of the Readers were analysed from these points of view and the table on the next page will show how far the above principles have been observed.

9. *Poems* :

From the point of view of utility, poems should have a very limited place as they are likely to introduce literary or archaic English.

10. *Vocabulary* :

In order to ascertain the nature of the vocabulary introduced as well as determine the ground covered at every stage of development, a complete vocabulary of each Primer and Reader was prepared on the following assumptions : (1) The word used as a noun and a verb in the same sense was counted as one, e.g. work (n) and work (v) were not counted separately ; (2) Out of the derived words, e.g. those formed with suffixes like 'ful,' 'er,' 'est,' 'ness,' 'ly,' one of each type was counted ; (3) In case the derived

Readers.	Conversation.		Conversation-cum-Nar- ration.	Narration.		Entertainment Lessons.		Information Lessons.		Rural.	Urban.	Letters.
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
LONGMANS :												
I	48.2	51.8	88.8	11.2	81.5	18.5
II	17.4	56.5	26.1	73.9	26.1	91.3	8.7
III	62.5	37.5	75.0	25.0	91.7	8.3
IV	16.6	25.0	58.4	83.3	16.7	79.2	20.8
NEW STUDY :												
I	52.9	26.6	20.5	91.2	8.8	17.6	17.6	2.6
II	32.2	58.1	9.7	77.4	22.6	77.4	22.6	6.1
III	41.4	55.2	3.4	58.6	41.4	79.3	20.7
IV	32.0	64.0	4.0	72.0	28.0	60.0	40.0
CORONATION :												
I	23.0	7.8	69.2	69.2	30.8	61.5	38.5
II	18.2	27.2	54.6	59.1	40.9	63.6	36.4
III	22.2	40.8	37.0	48.1	51.9	55.5	44.5	3.7
IV	15.4	15.4	69.2	38.5	61.5	42.3	57.7	3.7

word occurred before the original word, the derived word was counted while the original was left out ; and (4) Only the irregular forms of the ' Past Tense ' and the ' Past Participle ' were counted. The vocabulary was then divided into two lists—*useful* words and *unwanted* words. The list of unwanted words included (1) all literary words such as *pate*, *spake*, *thee*, *woe*, *yonder*, *aloft*, *arrant*, etc. ; (2) rarer words with only slight variations in their meanings (e.g. out of the words, 'shine,' 'gleam,' 'glitter,' 'glisten,' 'glimmer,' 'glow,' etc., all except 'shine' were regarded as unwanted) ; (3) words concerned with the domestic or emotional environment with the exception of the most essential ones (e.g. *mat*, *rat*, *cat*, *hen*, *cock*, *crow*, *ox*, etc., from the domestic field and *darling*, *embrace*, *sob*, etc., from the emotional field) ; (4) most of the words connected with country life and woodland atmosphere (e.g. *lion*, *rabbit*, *hare*, *cuckoo*, *bush*, *blossom*, *cliff*, *meadow*, *fox*, *deer*) ; (5) words connected with the domestic life or environment of foreign people (e.g. *parson*, *bishop*, *daffodil*, *hawthorn*, *lark*, *robin*) ; (6) all less frequent synonyms (e.g. out of *thin* and *slender*, *really* and *indeed*, *courage* and *pluck*, *complete* and *utter*, the words in italics were regarded as unwanted) ; (7) adjectives and adverbs showing minute differences (e.g. *white*, *black*, *green*, *yellow* are classified as useful while *pink*, *saffron*, *scarlet* are marked as unwanted) ; (8) all words regarding out-of-date or archaic atmosphere (e.g. *castle*, *fort*, *monk*, *monster*, *fairy*, *ogre*, *angel*, *dragon*) ; and (9) all words like *apple*, *banana*, *pudding*, *bread*, *cake*, etc., from the domestic field which have become almost a part of vernacular vocabularies. The following table gives the number of words introduced in each book of the three sets as well as the number of words which, according to the above standard, are not required by the Indian pupils : —

Books.			Total words.	Words not required.
LONGMANS :				
Primer	351	89
Reader I	380	74
Reader II	839	270
Reader III	577	249
Reader IV	928	444
Total of 5 books		..	<u>3,075</u>	<u>1,126</u>
NEW STUDY :				
Primer	425	27
Reader I	317	77
Reader II	504	145
Reader III	741	259
Reader IV	582	222
Total of 5 books		..	<u>2,569</u>	<u>730</u>
CORONATION :				
Primer	199	16
Reader I	305	38
Reader II	370	82
Reader III	398	101
Reader IV	579	138
Total of 5 books		..	<u>1,851</u>	<u>375</u>

There seems to be no agreement in the three sets as regards the number of words introduced at different stages. Out of the three sets, the Coronation has introduced the least number of words (1,851 in the first four years). This is too small while the number of words introduced by Longmans (3,075 in the first four years) is rather too large. Moreover, Longmans Readers introduce the maximum number (1,126) of unwanted words, amounting to over 36 per cent of the total number of words introduced. The New Study set introduces over 28 per cent of such words and the Coronation over 20 per cent. It is true that a certain number of such words may find their way into the Readers in order to meet the psychological needs of the pupil or by way of a limited allowance for the literary type of English. But the percentage of such words should naturally be very low.

11. *Exercises :*

The exercises given in a Reader can be classified into four groups according as they deal with (a) fixation, (b) testing assimilation and developing the power of expression, (c) free expression, or (d) grammar. A careful study of the exercises provided in these sets shows the following results :—

Longmans Readers :

The exercises ought to have been more carefully planned.

New Study :

(1) Questions and exercises for 'fixation' have ample variety ; but most of these are of a more or less general

nature. Fixation of the new linguistic items should receive first consideration ; (2) question on 'assimilation' and 'expression' need recasting to suit the different stages in the progress of the pupil ; (3) questions for developing the pupil's power of 'free expression' are very few and wanting in variety ; and (4) the exercises on grammar do not contain regular instruction in grammar.

Coronation :

(1) Fixation of the new linguistic material has, on the whole, received fair attention ; (2) the questions for testing assimilation in the first two Readers are to a great extent satisfactory. The questions in the third and the fourth Readers, however, fall below the required level. Moreover, there is no provision of separate questions for developing the pupil's power of expression ; and (3) there is a good deal of instruction in grammar, almost to the point of over-doing.

12. *Suggestions for the Compilation of New Readers :*

From the above observations, it is clear that a new set of Readers will be required to satisfy the needs of our pupils. In connection with the compilation of the 'new set' the following suggestions are offered :—

- (1) A 'Committee' should be appointed to determine the matter as well as the method of teaching English under the new course. It should fix up the 'minimum essential vocabulary' to be introduced. It should include

the Basic word list in order to enable the pupil to use the Basic English Dictionary. The Committee should also classify the selected vocabulary into the 'Recognition Group' and the 'Reproduction Group' so that teachers can concentrate on the latter.

- (2) Everyday matter-of-fact English should be the main concern of our language books.
- (3) In view of the importance of conversational English, a number of lessons, especially in the initial stages, should be in the form of conversation.
- (4) Information lessons, which definitely bring in matter-of-fact English and which are welcomed by the pupil in the advanced stages, should be given a predominant place in the later Readers.
- (5) Letter-writing (business type), applications, petitions, etc., should be an integral part of the material in the language books.
- (6) The forms of composition, in addition to letter-writing, that are useful for the Indian pupil are (a) summary, (b) paraphrase, (c) description, and (d) translation (from English into an Indian language). Essay, especially of the literary type, should be given no place at all.
- (7) Exercises in the Readers should be very carefully planned. These should be for (a) fixation, (b) testing assimilation and developing expression, (c) developing free expression, and (d) grammar.

- (8) The matter in the Readers should be very carefully graded grammatically and instruction in grammar should keep co-ordination with this gradation.
- (9) Instruction in grammar should be strictly restricted to those points which will be helpful in the acquisition of the language. It should be given preferably in the mother-tongue of the pupil.
- (10) A set of Supplementary Readers should be designed with the sole aim of fixing up the new linguistic material.

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